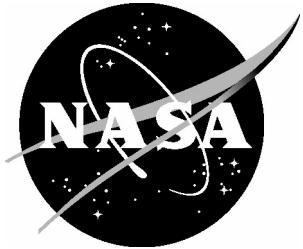


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# Comparison of Fiber Optic Strain Demodulation Implementations

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March 2005

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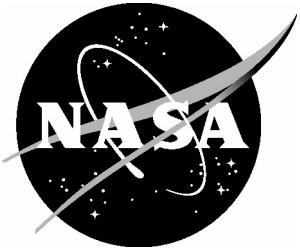
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## Abstract

*NASA Langley Research Center is developing instrumentation based upon principles of Optical Frequency-Domain Reflectometry (OFDR) for the provision of large-scale, dense distribution of strain sensors using fiber optics embedded with Bragg gratings. Fiber Optic Bragg Grating technology enables the distribution of thousands of sensors immune to moisture and electromagnetic interference with negligible weight penalty. At Langley, this technology provides a key component for research and development relevant to comprehensive aerospace vehicle structural health monitoring. A prototype system is under development that includes hardware and software necessary for the acquisition of data from an optical network and conversion of the data into strain measurements.*

*This report documents the steps taken to verify the software that implements the algorithm for calculating the fiber strain. Brief descriptions of the strain measurement system and the test article are given. The scope of this report is the verification of software implementations as compared to a reference model. The algorithm will be detailed along with comparison results.*

## Introduction

NASA Langley Research Center (LaRC) is developing instrumentation based upon principles of Optical Frequency-Domain Reflectometry (OFDR) for the provision of large-scale, densely-distributed strain sensors using fiber optics embedded with Bragg gratings. The theory and development of this technology, called the Fiber Optic Strain System (FOSS) is described in [1]. A simple explanation of the fundamental technique is that it identifies the position of a Bragg grating by measuring the free spectral range formed by the grating's reflection and the reflection from a known reference mirror [1]. The resultant signal as a function of wave number has a frequency proportional to the distance between the reference mirror and the grating. A Fourier Transform of the signal will produce a peak at the location of the grating. Fiber Optic Bragg Grating technology enables the distribution of thousands of sensors immune to moisture and electromagnetic interference with negligible weight penalty. At LaRC, this technology

provides a key component for research and development relevant to comprehensive aerospace vehicle structural health monitoring. A prototype system currently exists at LaRC that includes hardware and software necessary for the acquisition of data from an optical network and conversion of the data into strain measurements. To be deployed for vehicle structural health monitoring, FOSS must be matured to operate in a real-time environment. Before such a system can be deployed, it is necessary to verify that key software components are computing strain values in accordance with established metrics.

This report documents the steps taken to verify the software that implements the algorithm for calculating the fiber strain based on the work described in [1]. Brief descriptions of the strain measurement system and the test article are given. The scope of this report is the verification of software implementations as compared to a reference model. The algorithm will be detailed along with comparison results.

## General System Description

In an effort to record and display near real-time measurements, the prototype system distributes data acquisition, strain computation, data display, archiving and other tasks across multiple computers connected through a shared-memory architecture as illustrated in Figure 1.

The processing cycle begins with high-speed data acquisition hardware reading the grating reflections from a photo detector during the laser's frequency sweep. The acquired data is then posted to the shared memory network enabling immediate access by all network nodes - the node performing the archiving can begin writing out data while simultaneously another node performs the strain processing function.

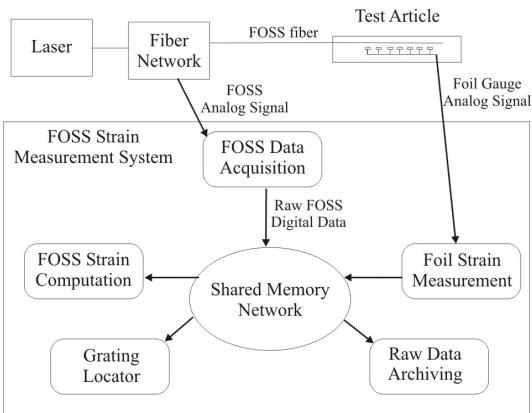


Figure 1: Topology for Fiber Strain Measurement System.

One of the reasons for using a distributed architecture is to reduce the cycle time from the data acquisition to strain reporting. By dedicating separate CPUs to specific functions, data dependent functions such as data acquisition and processing, can be pipelined; and non-data dependent tasks, such as display and archiving, can be simultaneously executed.

This necessitates strong coordination amongst the separate components so that data can flow smoothly between nodes. The nodes are connected through a reflective memory network (SCRAMNet). The data transfer rate is an important selection parameter because of the

voluminous data involved with each scan of a single fiber. The size of each scan is 1,048,576 floating-point values, equating to 4 MB of data that needs to be made available to all nodes. Using this type of network reduces the latency of waiting for the data to flow through the loop.

Another reason for using a distributed architecture is to maximize the processor bandwidth to perform the intensely-mathematical calculations necessary for computing strain. The strain calculation involves a 1,048,576 point discrete Fourier transform (DFT) and a series of smaller inverse DFTs. The software component which computes the strain from the raw data is one of the key parts of the system. Verification of its implementation is the subject of this report.

## Measurement Apparatus

For purposes of verification, three sets of measurements were taken from a fiber containing 333 gratings. The fiber is bonded to a cantilevered aluminum bar (121.92 cm X 6.3 cm X 0.6 cm) mounted on a stand 10 cm above a bench top as illustrated in Figure 2. The fiber runs twice the length of the bar as indicated in Figure 3. The aluminum bar is also instrumented with 13 foil-type strain gauges that were not used for this test



Figure 2: Aluminum bar mount on the bench top.

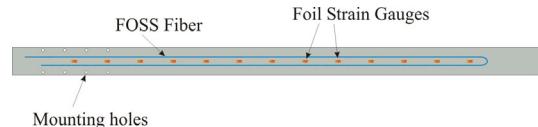


Figure 3: Diagram of aluminum bar.

One set of measurements was taken with no displacement applied to the cantilevered end resulting in the cantilevered end being about 10 cm from the bench top. A second data set was

taken with the cantilevered end depressed to approximately 1 cm from the bench top, and a third set was taken with the cantilever end raised to about 17 cm. Figure 4 shows the aluminum bar mounted on the test bench when the cantilever end is raised to about 17 cm.



Figure 4: Cantilevered end raised.

## FOSS Strain Computation Algorithm

The FOSS computes strain at each grating location by extracting the wavelength of each grating's reflected signal. The algorithm computes the Fourier transform of the reflected signal to determine the location of each grating, then performs the inverse transform of each grating's signal to measure its modified wavelength. The FOSS strain-computing component (FSC) implements a modified version of the algorithm included in the FOSS technology detailed in [1]. The basic steps for computing the strain from the raw data are as follows:

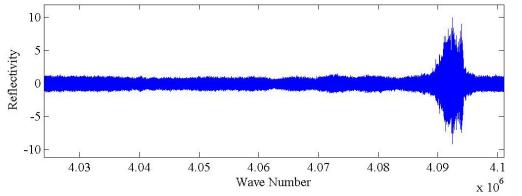


Figure 5: Raw data.

**Step 1:** Convert raw data (Figure 5) from wave number domain to spatial domain by applying a DFT.

$$F_k(d) = DFT(f_k(\mu)) \quad (1)$$

where:

- $f_k(\mu)$  is the raw data sampled by the data acquisition component.  $k$  is an index ranging from 1 to the sample size (1,048,576).  $f_k(\mu)$  represents the response of the fiber in the wave number domain where wave number  $\mu$  ranges from starting wave number ( $\mu_s$ ) to ending wave number ( $\mu_e$ ).
- $F_k(d)$  is the result of the DFT where  $k$  ranges from 1 to the sample size (1,048,576).  $F_k(d)$  is the response of the fiber transformed into the spatial domain ( $d$ ). See Figure 6.

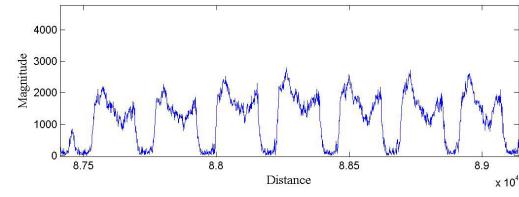


Figure 6: An example of the magnitude of the DFT for the first few gratings of the data plotted in Figure 5.

In the spatial domain, individual gratings can be identified in  $F_k(d)$  by a set of grating location indexes (defined a priori). Step 2 through Step 9 are repeated for each grating.

**Step 2:** Extract data for each grating.

$$F_n(d) = F_k(d) \Big|_{k=gs}^{k=ge} \quad (2)$$

where:

- $gs$  is the starting index for grating  $g$ .
- $ge$  is the ending index for grating  $g$

- $F_n(d)$  is the series of data points extracted for grating  $g$ . The symbol  $n$  ranges from 1 to the grating size defined by  $(ge - gs)$ .

**Step 3:** Compute the reflectivity of the grating, in the wave number domain  $\mu$ , by calculating the magnitude of the inverse DFT of the selected data segment relating to the specific grating. See Figure 7.

$$f_n(\mu) = |IDFT(F_n(d))| \quad (3)$$

where:

- $f_n(\mu)$  is the magnitude of the inverse FFT result for grating ( $g$ ).

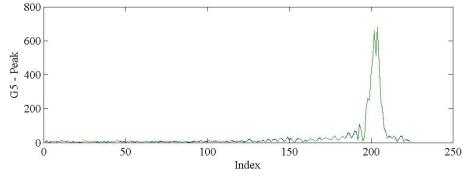


Figure 7: Grating reflectivity.

**Step 4:** Filter the reflectivity data using a Butterworth low-pass filter. See Figure 8.

$$B_n(\mu) = BW(f_n(\mu)) \quad (4)$$

where:

- $B_n(\mu)$  is the filtered peak for grating  $g$ .
- $BW()$  is an infinite impulse response (IIR) filter function using Butterworth coefficients applied to the grating peak  $f_n(\mu)$  - equation (3). The filter function is a direct form II implementation of the standard difference equation with coefficient matrix  $A[]$  and  $B[]$  given by  $A=[1, -0.9824, 0.3477]$  and  $B[0.0913, 0.1826, 0.0913]$

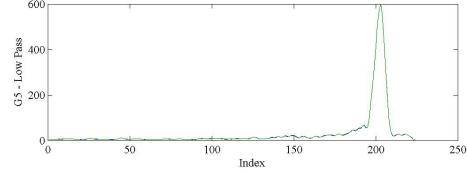


Figure 8: Result of low-pass filter of grating reflectivity from Figure 7.

The strain at each grating is computed from the wave number proportionally scaled to the index of the centroid of the grating peak shown in Figure 8. The centroid index was found to be very sensitive to the number of data points included in the centroid computation. For this reason, Step 5 has been added to the original algorithm to reduce the sensitivity of the centroid index to the number of data points included. A detailed study of this sensitivity is provided in a later section.

**Step 5:** Between every two data points in  $B_n(\mu)$ , use linear interpolation to define one hundred ( $E=100$ ) additional points to produce a bigger array.

$$B'_m(\mu) = I(B_n(\mu)) \quad (5)$$

where:

- $B'_m(\mu)$  is the expansion of  $B_n(\mu)$  hence  $m$  ranges from 1 to  $(E \cdot n)$
- $I()$  is the interpolation function applied to  $B_n(\mu)$ .

**Step 6:** Zero all data points in  $B'_m(\mu)$  that are below the threshold defined by  $T$ ; where  $T$  is half of the highest value in  $B_n(\mu)$  minus the average of  $B_n(\mu)$  as given in equation (6).

$$T = .5 \cdot (\max(B_n(\mu)) - \overline{B_n(\mu)}) \quad (6)$$

$$B''_m(\mu) = \begin{cases} 0 & : B'_m(\mu) < T \\ B'_m(\mu) & : B'_m(\mu) \geq T \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

**Step 7:** Eliminate all peaks in the data except for the highest peak. This is accomplished by finding the index of the highest value; and searching forward and backward to the first point lower than the noise level of 0.0001; then setting all points beyond those points to zero. The result of this Step performed on Figure 8 is shown in Figure 9.

$$t_m(\mu) = S(B''_m(\mu)) \quad (8)$$

where:

- $S()$  is the thresholding function as described in Appendix A.
- $t_m(\mu)$  is the portion of the grating peak (Figure 8) left after all the filtering and thresholding. This is the data left for calculating the centroid.

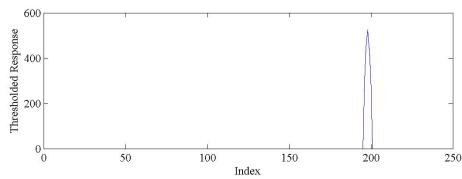


Figure 9: Thresholded grating reflectivity.

**Step 8:** Compute the centroid ( $\zeta$ ) of  $t_m(\mu)$ .

$$\zeta = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{(E \cdot (g_e - g_s))} (m \cdot t_m(\mu))}{E \times \sum_{m=1}^{(E \cdot (g_e - g_s))} t_m(\mu)} \quad (9)$$

**Step 9:** Use the centroid ( $\zeta$ ) to compute the centroid wave number ( $\mu_\zeta$ ) given by:

$$\mu_\zeta = \mu_s + \left( \frac{\zeta \cdot (\mu_e - \mu_s)}{(g_e - g_s)} \right) \quad (10)$$

where:

- $\mu_s$  is the wave number corresponding to the first data point.
- $\mu_e$  is the wave number corresponding to the last data point taken.

**Step 10:** Convert the wave number to wavelength. Then use the wavelength to compute the strain relative to a baseline wavelength ( $\lambda_b$ ).

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\mu_\zeta} \quad (11)$$

$$\mu\text{Strain} = \left( \frac{1e6}{0.79} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{\lambda - \lambda_b}{\lambda_b} \right) \quad (12)$$

A logging capability has been implemented in the FSC for recording various intermediate results in the algorithm. For this verification effort, the following were recorded:

- The DFT result from Step 1,
- The amplitude from the inverse DFT in Step 3,
- The filter result from Step 4,
- The grating centroid from Step 8,
- The micro-strain from Step 10.

## Result Comparison

Verification of the FSC implementation is performed by comparing its results at various selected steps with the results from two other implementations: LabVIEW and MATLAB. For purposes of this verification, the LabVIEW implementation is considered the standard for comparison because it was adopted from the original FOSS development work. A MATLAB implementation was included to additionally

assess whether the MATLAB computing environment produces notable differences in results.

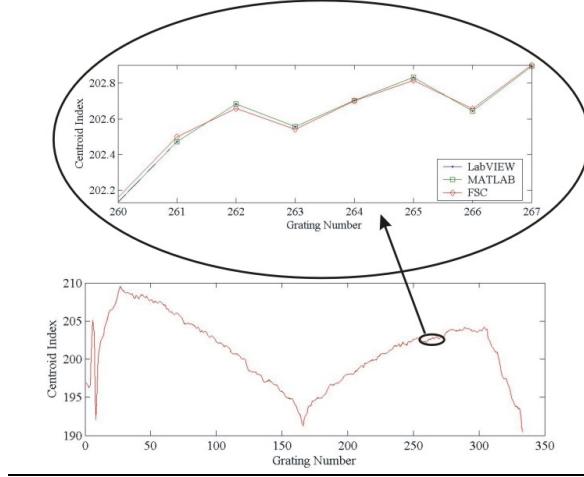


Figure 10: Centroid computed by the three implementations.

Computation of the grating-response centroid is shown in equation (9). The centroid is proportionally converted to a wave number between  $\mu_s$  and  $\mu_e$ . The centroid provides an index proportional to the wave number of the corresponding grating. Figure 10 shows the centroids computed by all three implementations for a single scan. The inset shows an expanded view of the centroids over a sub-region. The differences in centroid are shown in Figure 11. Several statistics for Figure 11 are given in Table 1.

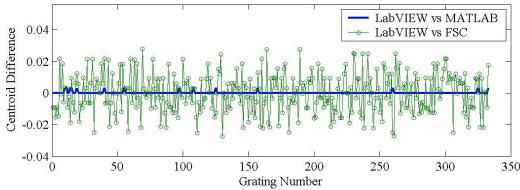


Figure 11: Variation in centroid from the LabVIEW implementation versus MATLAB and versus FSC.

As indicated in Table 1, the average difference in centroid for the FSC is  $1.06 \times 10^{-5}$  with a standard deviation of  $1.25 \times 10^{-2}$  while the average difference in centroid for the MATLAB

implementation is  $1.70 \times 10^{-4}$  with a standard deviation of  $6.20 \times 10^{-4}$ .

To ensure that any observed difference is due solely to the centroid computation, identical grating peak data is supplied to each implementation, which in this case was the data produced by the FSC. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the difference data shown in Figure 11. The results of the ANOVA show an 82% probability that the centroids computed by the different implementations are statistically the same.

Table 1: Centroid differences between LabVIEW and MATLAB, and LabVIEW and FSC.

Centroid Compare	LabVIEW vs MATLAB	LabVIEW vs FSC
Max Difference	$3.24 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.81 \times 10^{-2}$
Min Difference	$1.98 \times 10^{-5}$	$-2.74 \times 10^{-2}$
Average Value	$1.70 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.06 \times 10^{-5}$
Standard Deviation	$6.20 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.25 \times 10^{-2}$

Finally, a comparison was made of the derived strain values as calculated in Step 10. Strain is derived by calculating the shift in reflected wavelength between a grating “at rest” (no tension or compression) and the wavelength returned from the same grating undergoing tension or compression. Sensitivity analysis reveals that the micro-strain computation in Step 10 is sensitive to the centroid determination, Step 8. This sensitivity is further discussed in the next section.

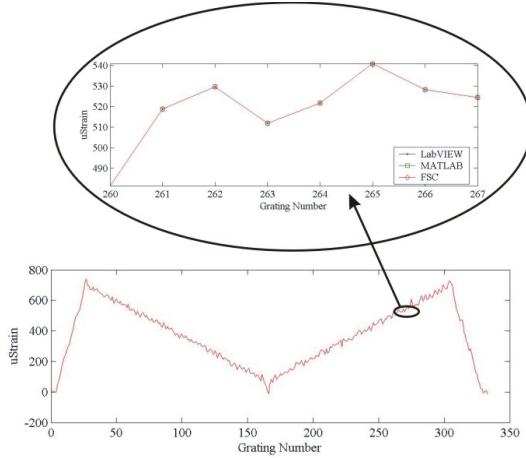


Figure 12: Micro-Strain plot for all three implementations.

The computed strain for all three models is shown in Figure 12. Like the centroid comparison, the micro-strain results from each of the three implementations differ. Again using the LabView implementation as reference, Figure 13 expands the micro-strain differences that are summarized in Table 2.

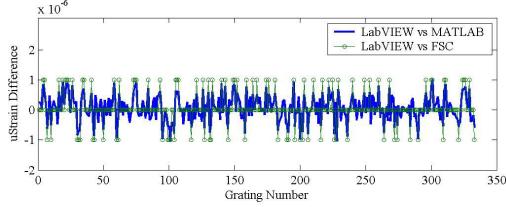


Figure 13: Difference in micro-Strain computation.

As indicated in Table 2, the average difference in  $\mu$ strain for the FSC is  $5.11 \times 10^{-8}$  with a standard deviation of  $5.38 \times 10^{-7}$  while the average difference in  $\mu$ strain for the MATLAB is  $4.31 \times 10^{-8}$  with a standard deviation of  $4.35 \times 10^{-7}$ .

To ensure that any observed difference is due solely to the micro-strain calculation algorithm, identical input centroid data is supplied to each implementation, which in this case was the data produced by the FSC. Again an ANOVA test was performed on the data in Figure 13. The test returned an 83% probability that the  $\mu$ strain computed by the different implementations are statistically the same.

Table 2: Micro-strain differences between LabVIEW and MATLAB, and LabView and FSC.

uStrain Compare	LabVIEW vs MATLAB	LabVIEW vs FSC
Max Difference	$1.02 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.00 \times 10^{-6}$
Min Difference	$-1.04 \times 10^{-6}$	$-1.00 \times 10^{-6}$
Average Value	$4.31 \times 10^{-8}$	$5.11 \times 10^{-8}$
Standard Deviation	$4.35 \times 10^{-7}$	$5.38 \times 10^{-7}$

## Strain Sensitivity

The FOSS strain computation is sensitive to the centroid index selection. Since there are often less than 10 data points available for computing the centroid after thresholding, the linear interpolation in Step 5 is used to add intermediate points to improve the centroid calculation. This was found to be particularly effective in cases where the signal contains points neighboring the threshold point. The resulting centroid could significantly change depending on whether or not such points are included or excluded from the calculation, resulting in a significant effect on the centroid index and ultimately the computed strain. Adding the interpolated points help to minimize the influence of border points.

To better understand the magnitude of strain error arising from an error in the centroid computation, the equation for computing  $\mu$ Strain can be put in terms of centroid index.

Examining Figure 14 and comparing to Equation (10) we can see that the term  $(g_e - g_s)$  equals  $(N - 1)$ , where  $(N)$  is the number of points in the array. Equation (10) becomes:

$$\mu_\zeta = \mu_s + (\zeta \cdot \delta) \quad (13)$$

where:

$$\delta = \frac{(\mu_e - \mu_s)}{(g_e - g_s)} \equiv \frac{(\mu_e - \mu_s)}{(N-1)} \quad (14)$$

Note that equation (14) represents the slope of the line that maps centroid to wave number. As illustrated in Figure 14, the range of possible values of ( $\zeta$ ) include all real numbers between 0 and  $(N-1)$ .

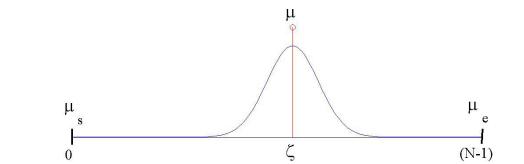


Figure 14: Generic grating response.

Substituting equations (14), (13), and (11) into (12), we get:

$$\mu Strain = \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta}{\mu_s + (\zeta \cdot \delta)} \right) \cdot (\zeta_b - \zeta) \quad (15)$$

where:

$$k = \left( \frac{1e6}{0.79} \right) \quad (16)$$

Table 3 shows typical values for several FOSS system parameters. Using these parameter values in equation (15) and comparing terms, we see that the term  $\mu_s$  is more than 50 times greater than the term  $(\zeta \cdot \delta)$ . Using the previous result, we can say that  $\mu_s \gg (\zeta \cdot \delta)$ .

Table 3: FOSS system parameters.

Parameters	Values
$k$	1265822.8
$\mu_s$	652698.91
$\mu_e$	640436.54
$N$	224
$\delta$	54.988226

Equation [15] can then be approximated

$$\mu Strain \approx \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta}{\mu_s} \right) \cdot (\zeta_b - \zeta) \quad (17)$$

Assuming that the centroid ( $\zeta$ ) in [17] is the sum of the true centroid value and some error term ( $\zeta_T \pm \zeta_E$ ) would yield Equation [18].

$$\mu Strain \approx \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta \cdot (\zeta_b - \zeta_T)}{\mu_s} \right) \pm \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta \cdot \zeta_E}{\mu_s} \right) \quad (18)$$

Equation [19] isolates the error term for convenience.

$$\mu Strain_{Error} \approx \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta \cdot \zeta_E}{\mu_s} \right) \quad (19)$$

It is now possible to estimate the strain error introduced by errors in the centroid calculation using equation (19). Substituting the constant values from Table 3 into (19) we arrive at the result in (20). Note in (20) that the strain error is divided by the centroid to give the amount of micro-strain error per unit of centroid index.

$$\frac{\mu Strain_{Error}}{\zeta_E} \approx \left( \frac{k \cdot \delta}{\mu_s} \right) = 106.64236 \quad (20)$$

Based on this result, we conclude that every 0.01 unit error in centroid calculation approximately corresponds to 1 micro-strain error. Because of this 100:1 magnification, it is very important to estimate the centroid as precisely as possible. For this reason, **Step 5** was added to the algorithm to get a more precise estimate of the centroid.

## Summary

This report briefly describes a system being developed at NASA Langley Research Center for

calculating in-situ strain measurements from a fiber with embedded Bragg gratings, and details steps taken to verify the correctness of an implementation of the demodulation calculations.

The verification was accomplished by comparing the intermediate computations of three implementations of the original LabView module reported in [1] – MATLAB, FSC, and LabView. The same algorithm was implemented in all three environments. For this effort, the original algorithm was augmented to include interpolation in the centroid selection procedure to reduce sensitivity to centroid calculation.

The centroid and strain results were calculated for each of the three implementations, and in general the centroid computations are in agreement. Statistics are provided relative to the FSC and MATLAB error estimates.

The work in this report is to verify that the FSC implements the FOSS algorithm with results comparable to the LabVIEW reference implementation. The validation of the FOSS algorithm is the subject of work in progress.

## Acknowledgement

The authors would like to recognize and thank Jason Moore, one of the inventors of the original FOSS technology. Without his invention, this work would not exist and without his help, this report would not be as in-depth.

## Appendix A: Pseudo-Code for Thresholding Function $S()$

The  $S(f)$  function is a numerical technique for eliminating all but the highest peak in the signal  $f$ . It is better expressed in pseudo-code than a traditional math formulation. The steps to perform in the function are as given below.

Let  $f_{\max}$  be the index of the max value of  $f$

Start at the index of the highest value of  $f$  and search backward for the first value that falls below the noise threshold of 0.0001. Set all values of  $f$  beyond that point to zero.

```
found = false;
For (i=fmax; i>=0; i--) {
    If f(i) < .0001 {
        found = true;.
    }
    If (found == true) {
        f(i) = 0
    }
}
```

Start at the index of the highest value of  $f$  and search forward for the first value that falls below the noise threshold of 0.0001. Set all values of  $f$  beyond that point to zero.

```
found = false;
For (i=fmax; i<length(f); i++) {
    If f(i) < .0001 {
        found = true;.
    }
    If (found == true) {
        f(i) = 0
    }
}
```

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OT, Vol. 37 Issue 10 Page 1741 (April 1998)

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NASA Langley Research Center is developing instrumentation based upon principles of Optical Frequency-Domain Reflectometry (OFDR) for the provision of large-scale, dense distribution of strain sensors using fiber optics embedded with Bragg gratings. Fiber Optic Bragg Grating technology enables the distribution of thousands of sensors immune to moisture and electromagnetic interference with negligible weight penalty. At Langley, this technology provides a key component for research and development relevant to comprehensive aerospace vehicle structural health monitoring. A prototype system is under development that includes hardware and software necessary for the acquisition of data from an optical network and conversion of the data into strain measurements. This report documents the steps taken to verify the software that implements the algorithm for calculating the fiber strain. Brief descriptions of the strain measurement system and the test article are given. The scope of this report is the verification of software implementations as compared to a reference model. The algorithm will be detailed along with comparison results.					
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